Introduction

As a teacher or as someone who will soon become a teacher, you have probably noticed the growing number of English language learners (ELLs) in your school system. ELLs are the fastest growing group of students in U.S. schools. It is estimated that approximately 5.1 million ELLs currently attend U.S. schools (U.S. Census, 2008), and this number is expected to continue to grow steadily (Goldenberg, 2008). Every day, more and more ELLs are being placed in regular education classrooms.

I wrote this strategy book to address the needs of the regular classroom teacher who is teaching one or more ELLs along with fully English proficient (FEP) learners. My intention is to provide you, the classroom teacher or preservice teacher, with strategies that are grounded in research and theory to enable you to provide appropriate instruction to this growing population of students. While it is not possible in a book of this nature to provide a comprehensive discussion of theories and research, the Resource section at the end of each unit provides additional readings. I recommend that you familiarize yourself with the theories and research presented within the units and within the Resource section and that you reflect on what is effective or likely to be effective with the ELLs you teach. As Carrier (2005) reminded us, to simply extract "strategies from books without an understanding of ELLs' unique language and learning needs is like building a house without understanding the basic principles of construction. Our house may begin to fall apart before we even move in" (p. 4).

How Best to Use this Book

This book is divided into nine units: the introduction, which you are now reading, and eight additional units. Each unit focuses on strategies in one area: managing the learning environment, working with other school professionals, assessment, comprehensibility, vocabulary, oral language development, reading and writing, and building home–school connections.

This Introduction provides an overview of the needs of regular classroom teachers, a brief history of the education of ELLs in U.S. schools, an explanation of the types of programs that currently exist for ELLs, and a brief description of several accepted theories for teaching ELLs. The Resource section at the end of this unit provides suggestions for further reading as well as links to videos that illustrate the theories and strategies.

After reading the Introduction, you may skip from unit to unit. Each unit begins with an overview of the broad underlying research and the TESOL student performance indicators for the strategies presented. The overview is useful for understanding the strategies presented within the unit. I encourage you to read this overview prior to

reading the strategies and then to revisit it as you plan to implement the strategies with your students.

Knowledge and Skills for Regular Classroom Teachers of English Language Learners

As the strengths and needs of students in U.S. classrooms change, so too must the knowledge, skills, and practice of classroom teachers. In order for ELLs to become successful academically, they will need to receive ongoing, appropriate instruction from well-prepared and caring teachers. As a regular classroom teacher, or as a preservice teacher, you bring great strengths to the role of teaching ELLs: You have the necessary content-area knowledge and expertise to determine which concepts are necessary for all students to learn. This knowledge will guide your instruction of ELLs who are placed in your classroom and will ensure that they learn content-area concepts that lead to academic success.

While, as a regular classroom teacher, you cannot be expected to have the same level of expertise as a specialist in English as a Second Language (ESL), you will need to be sufficiently prepared to help the ELLs in your classroom to develop content-area knowledge and academic English language proficiency as they learn complex content in English.

Standards for Classroom Instruction for English Language Learners

TESOL developed five broad classroom standards to guide instructional practices for ELLs in pre-kindergarten through Grade 12. The strategies in this book are aligned with TESOL standards, which are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 TESOL Standards for Instruction of ELLs

Standard 1	ELLs communicate for social, intercultural, and instructional purposes within the school setting
Standard 2	ELLs communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of language arts
Standard 3	ELLs communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of mathematics
Standard 4	ELLs communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of science
Standard 5	ELLs communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of social studies

Source: From *PreK–12 English Language Proficiency Standards* (p. 28), by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages [TESOL], 2006, Alexandria, VA: Author. Reprinted with permission.

TESOL also provided performance indicators for these standards for ELLs with different levels of English proficiency. Performance indicators for instructional strategies are included in the units of this book to help you understand the specific supports that ELLs with different English-proficiency levels will need for each strategy. The performance indicators are approximations, and they are indicative of performance that is likely to occur when instruction is optimal.

In addition, TESOL and the National Council for The Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) developed standards to guide the preparation of ESL specialists, whose role is to provide explicit language instruction in a variety of academic and social contexts and to ensure that ELLs have the oral and written English language they need across content areas (TESOL, 2010). The TESOL/NCATE standards are organized into five domains: Language, Culture, Instruction, Assessment, and Professionalism. Although regular classroom teachers may not receive the same depth of preparation in the area of language as ESL teachers, the TESOL/NCATE standards provide a framework to guide effective instruction for ELLs in all classrooms. Table 2 shows how units in this book are aligned with TESOL/NCATE standards. A link to the complete TESOL standards is included in the Resource section at the end of this unit.

Table 2 Alignment of TESOL Standards for Teachers and Units in this Book

Domain(s)	*Standards*	*Unit Connections*
Language	Know, understand, and use the major theories and research related to the structure and acquisition of language to help . . . ELLs develop language and literacy and achieve in the content areas. (TESOL, 2010, p. 27)	Introduction
Language, instruction	Know, understand, and use evidence-based practices and strategies to plan and implement standards-based, ESL and content instruction (TESOL, 2010, p. 44) in a supportive and collaborative classroom environment that provides multiple ways of presenting content.	Units I, V, VI, VII
Language	Know and understand English phonology, morphology, pragmatics, and syntax (a definition of each of these terms is included in Unit VII), and apply these to help ELLs develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities in English.	Introduction, Units VI, VII
Language	Know and understand theories of second language acquisition and apply these to instruction.	Introduction, Units III through VII
Culture	Know, understand, and use major concepts, principles, theories, and research related to the nature and role of culture and cultural groups to construct supportive learning environments for ELLs. (TESOL, 2010, p. 39)	Introduction, Units I, VI, VII

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Domain(s)	Standards	Unit Connections
Instruction	Plan and implement standards-based instruction in language and content areas.	Unit III
Assessment	Appropriately assess ELLs' language and content-area knowledge and understanding.	Unit III
Assessment, instruction	Effectively differentiate instruction according to ELLs' language and content-area assessments and grade-level standards.	Units III through VII
Instruction	Understand and apply theories and research in language acquisition and development to support ELL's English language and literacy learning and content-area achievement. (TESOL, 2010, p. 33)	Unit VI
Professionalism, culture	Acknowledge and understand the importance of school and family relationships for ELLs, establish and maintain positive school–family relationships, and collaborate with other professionals to provide appropriate instruction for ELLs.	Units II and VIII

Source: Adapted from *TESOL/NCATE Standards for the Recognition of Initial ESOL Programs in P-12 ESL Teacher Education*, by TESOL, 2010, Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

Although a complete discussion of the knowledge and abilities put forth by TESOL/NCATE and referenced in Table 2 is well beyond the scope of this strategy book, the Resource section at the end of each unit provides sources for further reading. It is useful for teachers and prospective teachers of ELLs to be aware of the history of language education in the United States, the current programs that exist for ELLs, and the demographics of ELLs in U.S. schools.

LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN U.S. SCHOOLS: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The presence of ELLs in U.S. schools is not a new phenomenon. Bilingual education programs were once quite common in the United States. A textile strike by immigrants in the Northeast in 1912 and World Wars I and II changed that dramatically. These historical events resulted in a distrust of immigrants, and speaking English became synonymous with loyalty to the United States. Consequently, bilingual programs were dismantled and ELLs were placed in U.S. schools with no support—an instructional situation that became widely known as *sink or swim*. Unfortunately, many ELLs were failed miserably by school systems during this sink or swim period.

To address educational inequities created by sink or swim, in 1970, a memorandum extended the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to explicitly protect language, and districts were required to take "affirmative steps" to provide English language development that would allow ELLs access to the curriculum. In 1974, in response to a class action suit by approximately 1,800 students of Chinese ancestry, the Supreme Court ruled that it was not sufficient to provide ELLs with the same facilities, textbooks, and teachers as

English proficient students; districts were required to provide ELLs with instruction that they could access. (Crawford, 2004)

Language Programs for English Language Learners in U.S. Schools

The Office for Civil Rights (1985/1990) allows districts to implement any program that has "proven successful" based on a "sound educational program" (para. 26). Districts must include an explanation of how the program meets the needs of ELLs and whether the "district is operating under an approved state plan or other accepted plans" (para. 26). As illustrated in Table 3, several types of programs exist in U.S. schools today (Office for Civil Rights, 2005).

Table 3 Basic Language Development Programs in U.S. Schools Today

Program	*Goal*	*Language of Instruction*	*Approximate Time in Program*
Two-Way Immersion	Bilingualism and biliteracy for ELLs and native-English speakers	English and native language	Generally at least six years and may continue throughout student's education
Maintenance Bilingual	Bilingualism and biliteracy for ELLs	English and native language	Generally at least six years and may continue throughout student's education
Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE), late exit	English proficiency	English and native language	Generally five years
TBE, early exit	English proficiency	English and native language	Generally not to exceed three years
Sheltered English Immersion (SEI) and/or Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)	English proficiency	English	Varies—one to three years is often the norm, but this can be extended
English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) alone	English proficiency	English	Varies depending on proficiency levels of ELLs on entry into the program

Source: From *Teaching English Language Learners: Content and Language in Middle and Secondary Mainstream Classrooms,* by M. Colombo and D. Furbush, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

An English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program may consist of two types of instruction: The ESOL teacher may work in the classroom with the classroom teacher or he or she may pull students from the classroom for individual or small group instruction.

Research is clear that ELLs who receive literacy instruction in their first languages make better progress in English literacy than those who are instructed in English only. As Goldenberg (2008) explained, this might seem counterintuitive based on common sense, but if we made all our decisions based on common sense "we would still believe that the sun revolves around a flat Earth" (p. 15). Research suggests that the programs with the most promise for ELLs are two-way bilingual programs in which ELLs continue to develop their first language while at the same time mastering challenging content and academic English (Goldenberg, 2008). Research also suggests that ELLs benefit from at least one period per day of instruction that is solely dedicated to the development of English language proficiency.

High-quality sheltered English immersion programs may be implemented when there is not a sufficient number of ELLs from any one language group to implement a two-way program. Sheltered English immersion programs are most effective for ELLs who have English proficiency levels from *Developing* to *Bridging* and who are on grade level in their first language. (Please see Table 4 for a description of English language proficiency levels.) In reality, ELLs who have *Starting* and *Emerging* levels of English language proficiency are often placed in regular education classrooms where all instruction is provided in English. Unfortunately, this is a less effective method for teaching ELLs who have lower proficiency levels and for ELLs who have major gaps in their schooling.

Who Are the English Language Learners in U.S. Schools?

ELLs are a very diverse population of students. Some ELLs arrive in the United States as young children or adolescents from over 200 countries (Goldenberg, 2008). Other ELLs represent the first generation born in the United States, and still others are the third generation in their families born in the United States. According to the American Community Survey, over 19% of the U.S. population over the age of five speaks a language other than English at home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008).

The languages other than English spoken most often in the United States are Spanish (62%); followed by Chinese (2.9%); Tagalog (Filipino) (2.6%); French, including Patois and Cajun (2.5%); Vietnamese (2.2%); German (2.1%); Korean (1.95%); Italian and Russian (1.5% each); Arabic (1.3%); and Portuguese (1.2%). The remaining 18.3% of people in the United States who speak a language other than English at home speak a variety of other languages (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008).

Like the general student population, ELLs differ from one another in terms of socioeconomic status, although ELLs are disproportionately represented in poverty statistics (Goldenberg, 2008). ELLs also differ from one another in their prior schooling, background knowledge, and proficiency levels in English and their first languages. Like all students, they differ cognitively, developmentally, and in their preferred styles of learning. What ELLs have in common is that they must construct all the knowledge that FEP learners construct, and they must do this in a language that they do not fully understand. At the same time ELLs are learning content, they must acquire the English language necessary to make sense of instruction and to express their knowledge and understanding.

ELLs have to develop proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English. While social language, such as the language used on the playground, at lunch, and in the hallways to discuss day to day events, is acquired quite quickly—normally

within a year or two—academic language, or the language of classroom instruction, develops much more gradually. Even with appropriate instruction, academic language proficiency may not fully develop for at least six years.

ELLs in early grades and ELLs who have significant gaps in their schooling must also learn to read in English as they learn the language itself. They will have to learn to read different genres (various types of fiction, nonfiction, and expository text) and to apply the writing conventions of standard English across genres and content areas.

Even after ELLs have developed the ability to read and write in English, frequent errors with grammar, syntax, and idioms are a normal part of language development. The research of Thomas and Collier (1997) suggested that to simply catch up to native English speakers, ELLs must make a 1.5-year gain for every year of growth that native English speakers make. Achieving academic success is extremely challenging, yet we know that with appropriate instruction, many ELLs do become successful.

For instructional purposes, the development of English proficiency can be categorized by five broad performance levels that detail what English language learners can understand and use (TESOL, 2006), shown in Table 4.

Table 4 TESOL Performance Levels for Five Levels of Language Proficiency

Level 1 Starting	*Level 2* Emerging	*Level 3* Developing	*Level 4* Expanding	*Level 5* Bridging
Language to communicate basic and concrete needs	Language based on simple and routine experiences	Language about familiar matters regularly encountered	Language at concrete and abstract levels, application of language to new experiences	Language within a range of longer oral and written texts, recognition of implicit meaning
High-frequency words and memorized chunks of language	High-frequency words and generalized vocabulary and expressions	General and specific academic vocabulary and expressions	Specialized and some technical academic vocabulary and expressions	Technical and academic vocabulary and expressions
Words, phrases, or chunks of language	Phrases or short sentences	Expanded sentences	Variety of sentence lengths and linguistic complexity	Varity of sentence lengths and linguistic complexity in extended discourse
Pictorial, graphic, or nonverbal representation of language	Oral or written language, making errors that often impede meaning	Oral or written language, making errors that impede communication but retain much of the meaning	Oral or written language, making minimal errors that do not impede overall meaning	Oral or written language approaching that of English-proficient learners

Source: Adapted from *PreK–12 English Language Proficiency Standards* (p. 39), by TESOL, 2006, Alexandria, VA: Author. Used with Permission.

Current Theories Important for Learning and for Teaching ELLs

Large numbers of books are written about theories of second language acquisition that help to inform teaching and learning. Obviously, a complete description of these theories is well beyond the scope of this strategy book. Thus, the purpose of the next few pages is simply to familiarize you with some commonly accepted theories and hypotheses that undergird the instructional strategies presented in this text. Table 5 shows the theory (hypothesis or model), the theorist, a description of the theory, and the broad instructional strategies or methodologies that have sprung forth from the theory. These theories, hypotheses, and models will be revisited in later units as strategies are introduced and illustrated.

Table 5 Common Theories (Hypotheses and Models), Theorists, and Instructional Implications

Theory Name	*Theorist*	*Description and Implications for Instruction*
Universal Grammar	Chomsky	*Description*. Chomsky's work revolutionized the way we understand language development. Universal Grammar refers to the system of rules that is common to all languages that exist in the world. Languages share both commonalities and differences (principles and parameters). With regard to principle, all languages express meaning by combining sounds to develop words, and combining words to make phrases, which are then used in a variety of contexts. With regard to parameters, languages differ in the ways meaning is expressed (sounds, words, phrasing, etc.). According to Chomsky, and many more recent linguists, the human brain contains a neurological structure that is referred to as the language acquisition device (LAD). The LAD enables children to naturally acquire the language(s) to which he or she is regularly exposed. *Implications for instruction*. ELLs have a sophisticated and developed primary language system. They know the rules of their own language—what sounds right. They will need ongoing opportunities to hear and to use language in meaningful circumstances in order to develop English sounds, syntax, grammar, and vocabulary. Chomsky (1965)
Common Underlying Proficiency	Cummins	*Description*. Cummins theorized that humans have one central and integrated system or processing center that can be accessed by multiple languages. Thus, the concepts that ELLs have learned in one language are available to the ELLs in additional languages.

		Implications for instruction. The Common Underlying Proficiency theory helps to explain the differences between teaching ELLs who are educated in their primary languages and teaching ELLs with interrupted schooling. An ELL who has learned a concept in his or her first language does not need to relearn the concept when it is encountered in English; rather, he or she must learn the English words for the concept. ELLs who are able to read in their first languages will transfer these abilities (with varying levels of support) to reading in English as they develop proficiency in academic English. ELLs with interrupted schooling will need to learn new concepts in a language they do not understand as they learn the language itself. It is beneficial to use one's primary language in the acquisition of another language. Cummins (1981) (see also Baker 2006; Colombo & Furbush, 2009)
Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (i +1)	Krashen	*Description*. Krashen hypothesized that acquiring a language occurs through ongoing exposure to input that is comprehensible to the listener and is just beyond the listener's current linguistic ability. Thus, the ELL must understand the language input, but the input must consistently require her to develop more sophisticated language. The input hypothesis is frequently referred to as *input + 1* or simply *i+1*. *Implications for instruction*. Instructional language must be made understandable to the language learner. In providing instruction, teachers must ensure that presentations and materials are always understandable to the ELL, but at the same time just a little beyond the ELL's current ability. (Strategies for making content comprehensible are discussed in Unit IV of this book.) Krashen (1985)
Acquisition vs. Learning Hypothesis	Krashen	*Description*. Language learners acquire language by using it in real communication. They learn about language through instruction and studying. According to Krashen, ELLs acquire the rules of grammar in the same way that children acquire the grammatical rules of their first language. Thus, while acquiring English, ELLs first produce words and then put words together to create meaningful utterances, rather than grammatically correct ones. *Implications for instruction*. Teachers should provide language-rich settings and ample opportunities for ELLs to hear and use English in meaningful ways. Unit I helps create a classroom setting for this to occur, and Unit VI provides strategies for engaging ELLs in meaningful academic conversations. Krashen (1981, 1985)

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Theory Name	*Theorist*	*Description and Implications for Instruction*
Monitor Hypothesis	Krashen	*Description*. As language learners learn the rules of grammar, they begin to monitor their output for grammatical correctness. The monitor acts as an editor. According to Krashen, there is substantial variation in individuals with regard to their use of the monitor. Overactive use of the monitor may interfere with using English for communication. *Implications for instruction*. Once ELLs acquire basic grammatical rules, they are able to begin to monitor their output for correctness. To do this, ELLs need time to use language with peers and in think-pair-share situations before speaking to the larger group. While the focus is communication rather than correctness, practicing with a group of peers is likely to promote both. Krashen (1981)
Affective Filter Hypothesis	Krashen	*Description*. The affective filter refers to the emotional factors that allow or block language—the anxiety that a learner experiences. When the affective filter is high, language is blocked and learners have limited access to input and may be unable to produce output. Conversely, when the affective filter is low, learners can access input and produce output. *Implications for instruction*. Language learning environments should limit anxiety and fear so that ELLs' affective filters remain low. Well-planned, comprehensible activities in small groups are useful, as are providing ELLs with sufficient comprehensible input and time to practice language with a partner or within small groups before speaking in front of the larger group. Krashen & Terrell (1983)
Silent Period	Krashen	*Description*. The silent period is a normal stage of second language acquisition. When first exposed to a new language, the language learner takes in the language and begins to make sense of it, but often does not try to use the language. This silent period can be brief or prolonged. *Implications for instruction*. ELLs should not be pressured to speak. Teachers should make other students in the classroom aware of the possibility of a silent period so that students will understand if ELLs do not attempt to speak and will not pressure them to do so. Krashen (1985)

Theory Name	*Theorist*	*Description and Implications for Instruction*
Sociocultural Learning, Constructivism, and the Zone of Proximal Development	Vygotsky	*Description*. Individuals construct knowledge and understanding when working in collaboration with others. The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to the difference between what a learner can do independently and what he or she is able to do with scaffolding or when collaborating with a more capable peer. *Implications for instruction*. The ZPD is relevant to all kinds of learning, including language learning. Within the classroom, ELLs need ample opportunities to use language with teachers and with students who have higher levels of English language proficiency. Several strategies for academic oral language proficiency in Unit VI and strategies for reading and writing in Unit VII are based, at least in part, on the ZPD. Vygotsky (1978)
Comprehensible Output (o + 1)	Swain	*Description*. Comprehensible output refers to the language that ELLs use when speaking with others. According to Swain, it is the use of language that enables ELLs to understand what they can and cannot do, what they have learned, and what they still need to learn. Through output, the ELL notices that her language is incorrect or that she is unable to say something. Thus, output provides for ongoing formative self-assessment, enabling the ELL to measure progress and note gaps. Output also promotes deep language processing and elaboration, which promotes language acquisition. *Implications for Instruction*. Teacher questions that require ELLs to elaborate on their responses encourage the development of language proficiency. Purposeful academic conversations in small groups also promote increased and improved output (Units V and VI include strategies that promote increased comprehensible output). Swain (1985, 2000, 2005)
Communicative Competence	Hymes, Canale, Swain	*Description*. Hymes introduced the theory of communicative competence, which recognizes the important of output as well as input. The theory of communicative competence was further developed by Canale and Swain and Canale. According to the theory, receptive and productive language proficiency develops as a result of meaningful communication in the target language. Canale identified four major types of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. *Implications for instruction*. ELLs benefit from ongoing opportunities within the classroom to use language for purposeful communication (Units I and IV through VII). Teachers should assess communicative competence to provide ELLs with meaningful feedback (Unit III). Canale (1983); Canale & Swain (1980); Hymes (1972)

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Theory Name	*Theorist*	*Description and Implications for Instruction*
Four Quadrant Context-Embedded, Context-Reduced Model	Cummins	*Description*. The context-embedded versus context-reduced model provides a framework for understanding that language forms differ in their cognitive complexity, and context makes language less cognitively demanding. For example, speaking face to face provides context because the speaker and listener receive visual cues from one another, whereas speaking by telephone removes the visual cues (the context) and makes communication more difficult. A lecture accompanied by rich visuals has more context than one without. A complete discussion of the model is provided in Unit IV. *Implications for instruction*. ELLs benefit from instruction that is situated in context. The more context (visuals, graphics, realia, etc.) that the teacher can provide, the more comprehensible the content. Cummins (2000)
Social or Conversational Language vs. Academic Language	Cummins	*Description*. Social language is normally acquired within a year or two, whereas academic language (the language of the classroom) typically takes six or more years to acquire. The distinction between social and academic language was once referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) versus Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (and still is by many ESL teachers). *Implications for instruction*. Teachers should not confuse an ELL's ability to speak socially with her ability to perform course work. An ELL might appear to speak fluently and without an accent and still not have sufficient academic language to succeed in school. Teachers must provide structured time within their classes for academic conversations. Unit VI has strategies that help to build academic language. Cummins (1979, 2000)

STRATEGY RESOURCES

RESEARCH

1. TESOL/NCATE Standards for ESOL Teachers. TESOL provides the entire TESOL/NCATE Standards for the Recognition of Initial TESOL Programs in P-12 ESL Teacher Education.

   http://www.tesol.org/s_tesol/seccss.asp?CID=219&DID=1689

2. *Teaching English Language Learners: What the Research Says and Does Not Say* is an important overview of current research and suggestions for practice provided by Claude Goldenberg (2008).

   http://www.edweek.org/media/ell_final.pdf

3. The executive summary of the National Literacy Panel, which focused on teaching language-minority students to read and write in English, provides an overview of the NLP's findings that providing instruction in the key components of literacy is necessary, but insufficient for ELLs who require instruction that develops oral proficiency.

   http://www.cal.org/projects/archive/nlpreports/Executive_Summary.pdf

4. Interview with Noam Chomsky on first language development

   http://www.chomsky.info/interviews/1987----.htm

5. Relationship between first and second language development

   http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/ncrcds04.html

6. Second language research and history of education for ELLs, by Dr. Jim Cummins

   http://www.iteachilearn.com/cummins/

7. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*, by Dr. Stephen Krashen (1981), is available online at no cost. Chapter 5 discusses the role of first language in second language acquisition.

   http://www.sdkrashen.com/SL_Acquisition_and_Learning/index.html

Video Links

1. The E-library at Stanford University offers over 10 hours of video for teachers of ELLs, including second language acquisition, English language development, sheltering content-area instruction, and the impact of culture on ELLs. There is no fee for registration.

   http://ellib.stanford.edu/?q=public-video-library

2. Colorin Colorado and the American Federation of Teachers present a comprehensive online professional development series for middle and high school educators of ELLs.

   http://www.colorincolorado.org/multimedia/learn

3. Total Physical Response (TPR) demonstration on YouTube, with James Asher; provides theory and illustrates practice with adults, younger children, and youth.

   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ikZY6XpB214&feature=related

4. Language Development in infants—a study of innate language abilities—word segmentation in support of Universal Grammar—infants identify sounds not in their language

   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mZAuZ--Yeqo&feature=related

5. A four-minute introduction to Vygotsky

   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hx84h-i3w8U&feature=related